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ABSTRACT

This publication contains classroom activities and fact sheets intended to teach intermediate and secondary level students about international understanding, cooperation, and peace. A background paper for teachers and a bibliography are also included. Following a very brief introduction in Part I, Part II contains teacher's notes and suggestions for classroom activities in four areas: conflict study and conflict solving; the arms race, disarmament, and development; peace; and our role in developing the future. Students are involved in many different kinds of activities. For example, they analyze a war film, read and discuss books, make wall posters presenting information about military expenditures and development, conduct research about the functions of the United Nations, and participate in simulations. Part III contains the background paper, fact sheets, and the bibliography. The paper discusses "Conflict Studies and Peace Education." Fact sheets are provided on various topics: military expenditures and arms, arms transfers, research and development, disarmament and development, and the United Nations and disarmament. A list of books, reports, posters, films, and other publications concerning disarmament is included. The appendices contain six masters for overhead projection transparencies. (Author/RM)

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DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION

UNICEF School Series No. 6

AN APPROACH TO PEACE EDUCATION

2

DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION

UNICEF

AN APPROACH TO PEACE EDUCATION

A teaching unit on disarmament, development and the child prepared by Sissel Volan

Part I: Introduction.

Part II: Teacher's notes and suggestions for classroom activities.
1. Conflict study and conflict solving.
2. The arms race - Disarmament - Development.
3. The concepts of peace.
4. Our role in developing the future.

Part III: Background Papers.
1. David C. Smith: Conflict studies and peace education.
2. Ideas Forum Supplement on Children and Peace Awareness.
3. Facts about UNICEF.
4. Fact sheets linking the arms race and disarmament efforts to development.
5. List of UN information materials and documents on disarmament.

Appendices
1. Six masters for overhead projection transparencies.
2. Wallchart. (Removed by ERIC; not reproducible).

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The price of school kit no. 6, mentioned in the enclosed Ideas Forum Supplement, is incorrect. This revised kit is available from National Committees for UNICEF.

INTRODUCTION

« The International Year of the Child 1979 has succeeded in sharpening the concern of UNICEF, and of all those who support the cause of needy children around the world, about a gross and evergrowing imbalance: vast amounts which governments spend each year on weapons of war, and the comparatively small funds available to help reach the millions upon millions of infants and children who lack medical care, safe water and elementary sanitation, adequate nutrition, a chance to get a basic education, and child welfare services. Since the 1980's have opened with increased expenditures on armaments, UNICEF should continue to make extra efforts to stimulate public opinion — including both adults and children — to understand the close link between disarmament and development programmes benefiting the young. I would like to encourage the user of this peace education kit to co-operate in these efforts. »

James Grant
Executive Director of UNICEF
April 1980

The material in this kit should be seen as a way of implementing the UNESCO Recommendation concerning education for international understanding, co-operation and peace. Its aims are:
— to foster awareness of the problems created by the arms race and the need for disarmament,
— to foster attitudes of co-operation and tolerance by training the pupils in conflict solving,
— to deglorify violence (and the use of it) on an individual, national and international level,
— to create a deeper understanding of the concepts of peace and the necessity for personal involvement in « building » peace.

Teaching alone can, however, only to a limited extent, succeed in creating or changing attitudes. The attitudes we wish to foster must also be formed and expressed in behaviour in our immediate surroundings. This is a great challenge to the environment children grow up in — both inside and outside school.

This teaching unit is designed for use with students of various ages. However, most of the material is too advanced for pupils below 10 years of age.

There are several ways of using the kit:
1. As resource material for planning thematic days — in which various subjects are integrated.
2. As resource material for planning a separate teaching unit within civic education.
3. As resource material for everyday classroom teaching — where the aim is to bring problems raised in this kit into various subjects at different stages.

If you have comments or suggestions concerning this material, we would be most interested to receive them. Please write to one of the UNICEF adresses given on the index page.

TEACHER'S NOTES AND SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

These notes offer a collection of ideas which you may use to compose your individual teaching unit, tailored to **your** students.

Study questions considered to be of high difficulty are marked with *.

1. CONFLICT STUDY AND CONFLICT SOLVING

Toyny Stahre (from Alternativ till vald, Swedish U.N. Association).

In considering how conflict studies can be planned and organized, it is helpful if we are clear about the assumptions upon which these studies may be based. Whether we are thinking about conflict between individuals, groups or nations, we shall asume that conflict is a phenomenon necessary to the growth and development of individuals and societies as a whole. Conflicts occur all the time and, inherent within them, are possibilities for stagnation or growth and change, depending upon how they are resolved. We need to develop healthy attitudes towards conflict as an aspect of the reality of the world we live in. What this means is that young people need to know that conflict is a more or less permanent aspect of their lives. They therefore need to know more about the origins of conflict, to be able to anticipate it and to be able to develop peaceful means of coping with it.

(From David Smith: Conflict studies and peace education, UNESCO, Prospects No. 2 1979)

The two lists presented below are primarily intended to serve as a frame of reference when working with conflict studies in class. To what extent students can work directly with the lists, depends of course on their age level.

A. HUMAN CONFLICTS - THREE LEVELS OF EXPERIENCE.

1. *Conflicts at the individual level.*
   - within families
   - at school
   - in social life, etc.

2. *Conflicts at the national level.*
   Tensions between various subsections of the population:
   - regional groups
   - ethnic groups
   - employers and employees
   - occupational groups
   - political groups, etc.

3. *Conflicts at the international level.*
   Range from short-lived squabbles between neighbouring countries to long-standing cold wars.

B. "CHECK LIST" FOR ANALYZING CONFLICTS.

1. *Conflict level.*

2. *The actors/participants.*

3. *Defining of conflict theme/causes.*
   There are two distinct (but interrelated) categories:
   a) conflicts between individuals, groups or nations over the resources to meet the individual or collective basic physical needs of life (food, water, resources to provide clothing, shelter, energy and space);
   b) conflicts over the satisfaction of psychological needs - such as group membership, achievements, status, prestige and power.

4. *Points of view.*

5. *Action forms at disposal.*
Conflict resolution can occur/occurs in one of the following ways:
a) through aggression
b) through withdrawal
c) through negotiation
d) through decision by a third party (arbitration)

6. *Possible solution methods* (chosen from the action forms listed under 5).

7. *Consequences* (of the solution method selected under 6).

8. *Final decision/choice* (taking 6 and 7 into consideration).

C. SUGGESTIONS FOR WORK.

1. Conflicts at the individual level.

Can we, if we want to understand more about war between nations, get any clues from quarrels and arguments in everyday life? Here are some descriptions of fairly simple scenes. Select some of them as starting points for simulation, or as discussion themes.

a) *Class-room...*

Someone throws a ball across the classroom, and the teacher sees it. The teacher is angry, but unfortunately picks on wrong pupil. "You! You again. You're always causing trouble." The pupil...

b) *Fans...*

Late Saturday afternoon, there are five of them, their team has lost. They meet some fans from the other side. It's five against seven. One of the group of seven says words to the effect "your side deserved to lose, they played dirty, they always do." The group of five...

c) *Snowball...*

12-year old children throwing snowballs at each other. Three against three. A scream, and one of them has a badly cut face. There was a stone in a snowball. "You threw that", says the child, pointing at another. The child pointed at...

d) *School club...*

A boy aged 8 has just joined a school club. A group of older boys in the club decide to "initiate" him by throwing him into a large holly bush. As this is about to happen, another one of the older boys challenges this intention, and there is an argument which becomes more and more heated. Just as a fight is about to begin between the leaders of the two factions, authority appears on the scene in the form of a teacher who is walking along a nearby road. No blows have been struck, and he is a sufficient distance away not to realize that the group is engaged in a heated argument. After a friendly greeting he continues on his way. The interruption is just sufficient to allow tempers to cool a little, and then the two groups again begin to argue...

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* Simulation a, b and c are taken from "World in conflict" (Robin Richardson - World Studies Project). Simulation d is prepared by Frank Field.

Let the pupils "enter" one or more of the conflicts, and ask them to try to solve the differences between the persons/groups. Encourage them to apply the "check list" for analyzing conflicts (introduced under A).

As in most simulations, the subsequent discussion is of crucial importance. During this time the alternatives can be explained and discussed. It is possible that one or both persons/groups might decide that the best course would be to "fight it out". This should not be regarded as a "wrong" solution and condemned, but examined for its merits and demerits as a response to the situation. Such a "lets fight" decision, if it arises, should be explored. "What other ways have you tried to find?" "Is this a fair and suitable way of dealing with the situation?"

During the final discussion, the teacher can relate the alternative solutions (see point 5 in the "check list") to the adult world, and relations between countries. (a) represents, of course, war, (b) is the equivalent of a settlement by bi-lateral diplomacy or the resolution of a dispute between two individuals by common agreement, (c) represents mediation, or the offering of "good offices" in international relations, and (d) represents a decision by arbitration or law. It is not suggested at this stage that any attempt be made to explain the difference between settlement by law based on the application of legal rules by a court, and settlement on the basis of "what seems fair" or "natural justice" by arbitration. *The important point is decision by a third party.*

e) Discuss how you react and behave when conflicts arise in your own surroundings. Select an incident which has actually taken place in class or at school, and discuss how this conflict was tackled by the various parties involved.

f) In sports and games we have rules and regulations. Why is this so? What happens to players who break the rules? Select a well known game. Play it by deleting some of the rules. Discuss what happens.

g) Discuss whether you agree or disagree with the following statement:
"We cannot avoid conflicts. From time to time they are bound to happen. What we *can* do is try to learn how to control the conflicts when they occur."

2: Conflicts at the national level.

a) Do you know of groups within your own country which are in conflict with each other? Study such a conflict. If possible, talk to people who are/have been involved in it. Discuss possible solutions.

b) In many countries racial groups live together. Sometimes this causes great frictions. Make a list of countries where racial conflicts occur/have occurred. Select one of these conflicts for closer study.

c) What is a civil war? Go through your history book and find examples of such wars. What were the conflicts about? Has there ever been a civil war in *your* country?

Find out if there are any civil wars going on in the world today.

3. Conflicts at the international level.

a) Ask your students to write about:
— a war film they have seen, or a war-story they have heard/read,
— experiences of war told to them by their parents or grand-parents, or someone else they know.

Let the children present their accounts. Discuss them. Attempts should be made to underline the horror of war, rather than concentrating on heroism and excitement. Discuss how ordinary people experience war, and how it affects their lives.

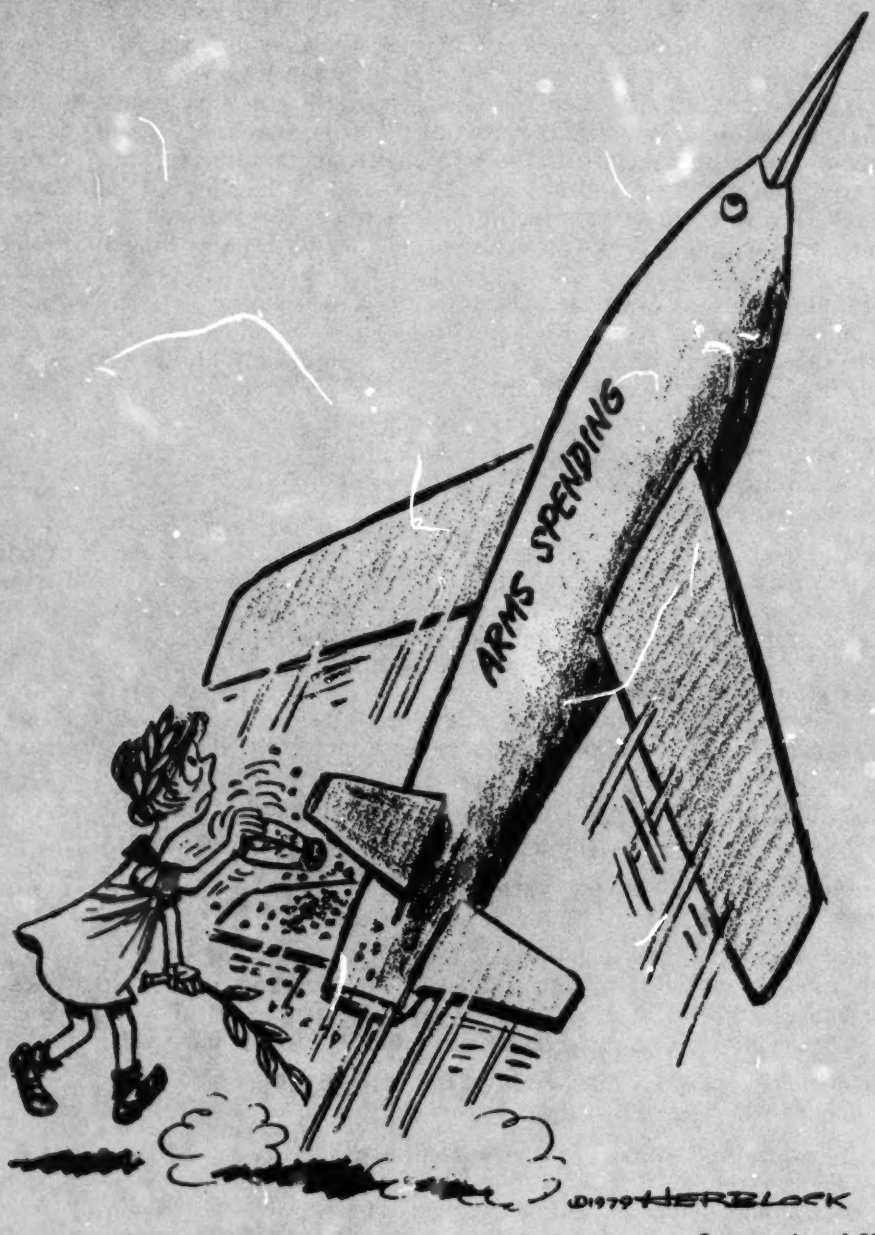
b) Read books about children experiencing war.

c) Study a present international conflict.
Gather as much information as possible about the conflict - through mass media, by interviewing people, etc.

* d) The United Nations and conflict solving.
Study the functions of the Security Council and of U.N. troops.

* e) Discuss the following statements:
— Not all fighting is wrong. When a nation attempts to restrict the freedom of another people or to invade them or oppress them, it may be necessary to meet force with force instead of becoming a passive victim.
— Wars through history have often mobilized people with positive results, such as — scientific advances, forging of national unity, heroic literature and art, full employment, etc.
— War has always been present in human history and therefore must be part of human nature that cannot be changed.

2. THE ARMS RACE - DISARMAMENT - DEVELOPMENT



International Herald Tribune
(Reprinted with the permission of Field Newspaper Syndicate)

In most societies the male child has for centuries been brought up to accept his role as a potential bearer of arms. War is regularly glorified in films, plays and comics. Consequently, many children will find the study of weapons very exciting. Try to "build down" this excitement by showing how dangerous weapons are and how disastrous the use of them might be for ordinary people. Furthermore, this unit aims at showing:

- how weapon production has developed from an individual craft to large scale industry (with lots of workers dependent on this production),
- how weapons — through history — have become more and more advanced, and also gradually more dangerous to civilians,
- how enormous sums of money are tied to the arms race,
- how money saved by disarming could be used for development purposes.

A. STUDY OF THE ARMS RACE, DISARMAMENT AND THE LINK BETWEEN DISARMAMENT AND DEVELOLMENT.

The approach to the subject of disarmament will be fundamentally different, depending on whether complete pacifism is the aim, or whether the control of military power is sought as a sufficient objective. For many centuries, the idea of the "just war" has been generally accepted. The willingness to fight in certain circumstances is part of the value system of virtually every state in the world. Any attempt by disarmament education to change these attitudes will be strongly resisted since it will be seen as a means of undermining the security of the state. Disarmament educators will leave themselves open to justified criticism if they reject the need for a willingness to fight, whilst at the same time accepting the threat or use of military force under limited conditions.

Background information on the arms race, disarmament and development is found in the enclosed fact sheets and might be used for discussion in class. However, the study of these subjects easily becomes a fairly theoretical exercise. It goes without saying that for the younger students, the subjects can only be treated rather superficially.

We enclose 6 drawings ** which can function as masters for:
a) photo copying - to hand out in class,
b) overhead projection transparencies.

We suggest that the pictures be used as the starting point for work with questions related to this unit. The themes of the drawings are presented in a way which we hope will arouse the interest of children. With some guidance from the teacher (see the following explanatory notes), it should then be possible to start discussing the underlying message of each picture.

Picture 1: The development of weapons
The chart shows how weapon production has developed from an individual craft to large scale industry, how weapons have become more and more advanced and also gradually more dangerous to civilians.

Picture 2: Military expenditures
This drawing is based on a chart showing military expenditure, 1949-78. See fact sheet 1.

Picture 3: Distribution of world military expenditures
The chart visualized by this drawing is found in fact sheet 1.

Picture 4: Military expenditure and social expenditure
In 1978 world military expenditures were about $ 400 thousand million (reckoned in current prices. The same year the world as a whole spent $ 270 thousand million on education, $ 200 thousand million on health care and $ 30 thousand million on development aid.

Picture 5: Value of major weapons transferred to the Third World
This drawing refers to the chart in fact sheet 2.

Picture 6: Military expenditures linked to development issues
— For the estimated cost of a new mobile intercontinental missile, 50 million malnourished children in developing countries could be adequately fed.
— The cost of one tank, $ 500 000, could provide equipment for 520 classrooms with 30 pupils per primary school class.
— One jet fighter equals 40 000 village pharmacies.

B. SUGGESTIONS FOR WORK.

1. Study questions for the pictures.

Picture 1
Study the picture chart carefully. What does it tell you? Make a story around each picture.

Picture 2
a) How much has world military expenditures increased from 1949 to 1978? Figure it out in the currency of your own country.

** The drawings of picture 1-6 are made by John Wyatt Nelson. Reproduction anthorized, stating source and artist.

b) Try to find out which 5 year period between 1949 and 1978 had the greatest increase.

Picture 3

a) The animals in the picture represent countries. Try to identify them.
b) If there were a hundred guns in the world, how would they be distributed between the various regions?

Picture 4

a) Discuss what the world has in her shopping bag.
b) Why do governments spend more money on arms than on social services? Discuss. Interview adults.

* **Picture 5**

Discuss the following arguments:

— "It is a great shame that most developing countries spend large sums to buy weapons. They should rather use their money to feed their own populations."
— "We have no right to citicize poor countries for spending money on arms, as long as we every year increase our expenditure in this field!"

Picture 6

Find out the cost of building a school/a hospital/a bridge, etc. in your neighbourhood. Compare the prices with those of a mobile missile/a tank/a jet fighter.

2. Make your own fact sheets by photo-copying the six drawings. Add necessary facts and figures to the pictures and work out explanatory notes.

3. Make wall posters presenting information about military expenditure and development. Illustrate your statistics by drawings, paintings, pictures from newspapers, magazines, etc. etc.

4. There is a large production of war toys. Many of these toys are true copies of weapons. Select one or two such toys and find out how dangerous they are in real life.
Why do children like to play with them? Why do adults buy them as presents to children?

* 5. The following simulation encourages discussion on the arms race - from various points of view. Divide your students into groups and let each group prepare arguments for one of the parties involved. After finishing the simulation, it might be interesting to analyze the various arguments used in the discussion. Which group/groups is it easy to identify with - and why?

Country X is big and powerful. It plays a leading role in the arms race. For the last five years a group of scientists in X has been working to develop a new weapon. Finally, they can present a successful result, and now the weapon is ready for production. However, X has just signed a U.N. treaty banning further production of a certain category of weapons for mass destruction. The new weapon undoubtedly belongs to this category: The president of country X is uncertain what to do. He has therefore invited representatives from various interest groups to an informal meeting to discuss the matter. The following groups are present:

Military representatives: want to maintain a strong military power, the new weapon is impressive and powerful, is needed to secure X a leading role in the arms race.

Scientists: have worked hard for years to develop this weapon, want to see their project fulfilled.

Group of civilians: claim that the new weapon is able to kill more than half a million innocent civilians in one single stroke and that it is immoral to put it into production.

Diplomats, members of X's delegation to the U.N.: point out that the U.N. has no jurisdiction over member states. The strength of the organization relies on the loyalty of its members, to break the present treaty will undermine and weaken the U.N.

Representatives from the Ministry of Finance: announce that since large sums of money already have been spent on research, it is bad economy not to produce the weapon, — however, the project will be very expensive, money has to be drawn from several sources — not only from the Ministry of Defence.

Group of industrial workers: argue that their factory is dependent on weapon production and need this order, do not want to lose their jobs.

Disarmament activists: want to take money spent on military purposes and use it to build more schools, hospitals, assist old people, aid to developing countries, etc.

The President: chairs the meeting, wants to listen to the pros and cons before he takes the final decision...

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3. THE CONCEPTS OF PEACE

Photo : UNICEF 4318.

Most people will define peace by saying that it is a state in which there is absence of war and physical violence. But what about indirect or structural violence? Can we say that we live in peace in a world where thousands of children are dying every year because of malnutrition and poverty, and where millions of people are denied the fulfilment of basic human needs?

This unit aims at giving the students a deeper understanding of the concepts of peace. We want them to realize that people are only living in peace when there is:
- absence of physical violence,
- fulfilment of basic human needs.

We also want them to discuss what peace is — in positive terms — and make them realize that creating peace requires active involvement, also on their part.

The terms presented below are primarily intended to serve as a frame of reference for the teacher.

A. USEFUL TERMS WHEN DISCUSSING THE PEACE CONCEPTS.

Human needs
The following definition is worked out by the researchers Johan Galtung and Anders Wirak:

Human needs	When fulfilment of basic needs is threatened	When basic needs are fulfiled
Life	Violence	Security
1. food (and water) 2. clothing 3. housing 4. health 5. education 6. social contact	Poverty	Well-being
7. work 8. liberty 9. politics	Suppression	Freedom
10. new experience 11. self realization 12. meaningful life	Alienation	Identity
Ecology	Ecological imbalance	Ecological balance

There are two forms of violence:

- PHYSICAL VOILENCE, is when pure physical power is used to threaten or harm people — with or without weapons, ranging from street fighting up to war between nations.
- STRUCTURAL VIOLENCE, is when people's basic human needs are not being satisfied because of the way society is organised (nationally/internationally). Structural violence can easily lead to physical violence.

B. SUGGGESTIONS FOR WORK.

1. Try to define peace. Express yourself through drawing. Make an exhibition in class and discuss it. What do your drawings tell you about peace?
2. Make two lists — one of words you connect with "peace" and one of words you connect with "war". Which list is the easiest to make? Why?
3. The Norwegian author Nordahl Grieg has said: "Peace is something you create". What do you think he meant by that?
4. Make a list of the things you consider that all human beings need, to lead a decent life. Compare your list with those of your classmates and discuss.
   — Are you missing any of the things you have listed?
   — What about other people/groups in your own society?
   — What about children in other countries?

5. Study pictures from a slum area in a developing country.
   — Would you say that the inhabitants of this area live in peace?
   — To what extent do you think life in the slums can fulfill human needs?

6. The following persons have become famous because of their work for peace. Try to find out something about their work.
   — Mahatma Gandhi
   — Fridtjof Nansen
   — Martin Luther King
   — Mayreed Corrigan/Betty Williams
   — Mother Theresa.

7. In 1959 the United Nations adopted a document called The Declaration of the Rights of the Child. It states that all children, no matter where they live in the world, have the same needs, and that these needs should be secured.

   Contact your national committee for UNICEF for copies of the Declaration. Study it and compare it with your own list on human needs. *

8. Find out how UNICEF works to fulfill basic needs for children in developing countries. ** (Contact your national committee for UNICEF for further information.)

* One copy of the Declaration is enclosed in the kit.

** One copy of Facts about UNICEF is enclosed as background information for the teacher.

4. OUR ROLE IN DEVELOPING THE FUTURE

When teaching about international topics, one of our aims is to get the pupils interested and involved in world issues. But involvement usually leads to a wish for action. Consequently, when working with international problems, we should always bear the following question in mind:

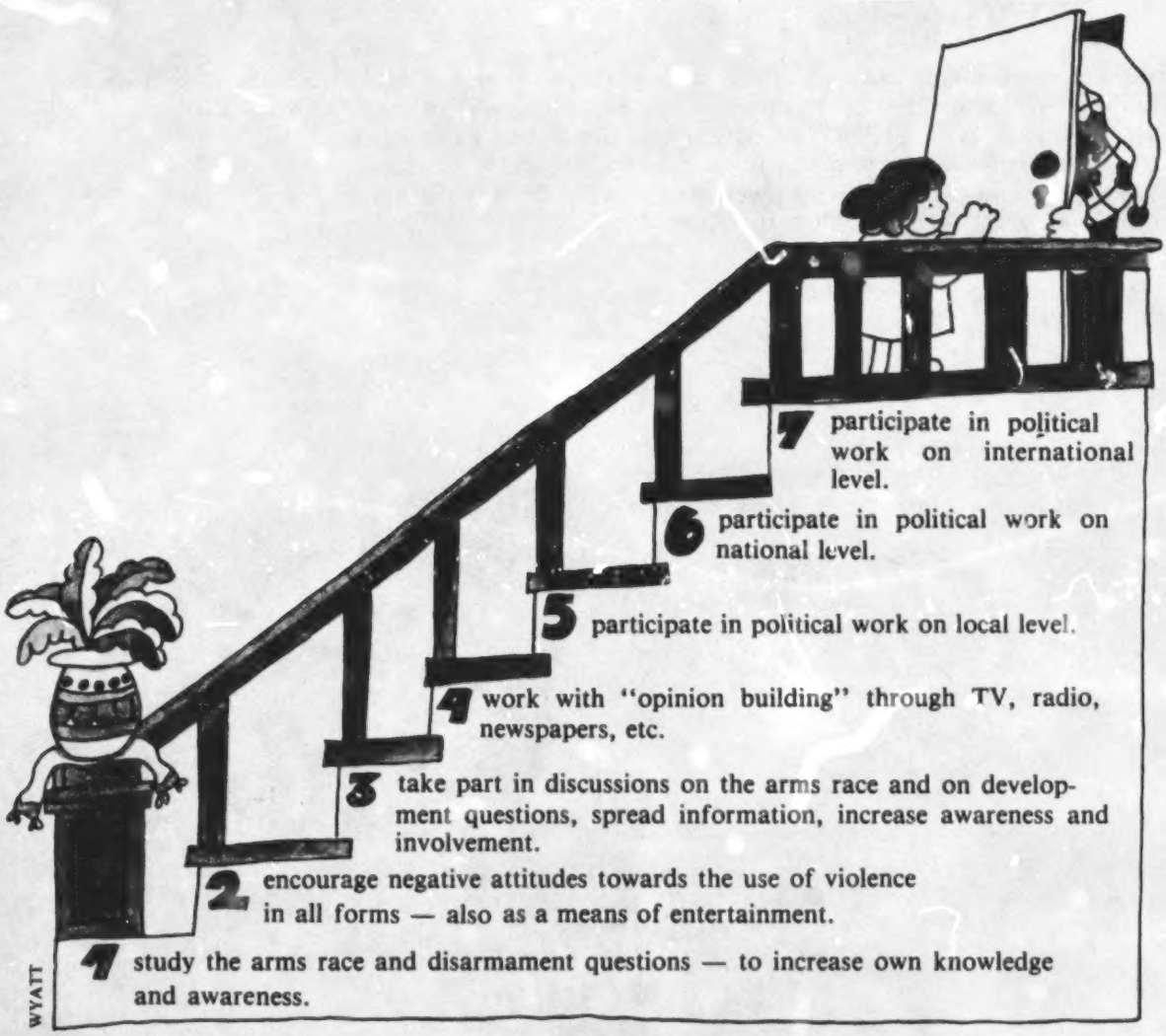
What can be done to ease/solve the situation we are studying at present?

- What can we do on the individual level ?
- What can be done by our class ?
- What can be done by our school ?
- What can be done by the clubs / organizations we are members of ?
- What can be done by our community ?
- What can be done by our government ?
- What can be done by our country ?
- What can be done by the churches, the political organizations, youth groups, etc. ?
- What can be done on the international level, e.g. by organizations like the United Nations ?

A. STAIRCASE FOR ACTIONS CONCERNING PEACE AND DISARMAMENT.

It is important to encourage involvement based on knowledge about the matters concerned. But it is also important to teach the pupils to be realistic when it comes to discussing action forms. Our starting point is that everybody can do something, but none of us is able to solve world problems all by ourselves. There are several levels of actions, and we have to select the level corresponding to our capacity.

It might be useful to illustrate the various action levels by the following staircase:


7 participate in political work on international level.
6 participate in political work on national level.
5 participate in political work on local level.
4 work with "opinion building" through TV, radio, newspapers, etc.
3 take part in discussions on the arms race and on development questions, spread information, increase awareness and involvement.
2 encourage negative attitudes towards the use of violence in all forms — also as a means of entertainment.
1 study the arms race and disarmament questions — to increase own knowledge and awareness.
WYATT

It is probably realistic to presume that most of us will only be able to work on the lower steps of the staircase. Where our pupils are concerned, this should be more than evident. However, one might consider the activities at the lower levels as a condition for further advancement up the staircase. To acquire basic knowledge, for example, is quite necessary as preparation if you later on want to take part in opinion building or policy making.

Above all, we should aim at giving our pupils a realistic view on their possibilities for action. For this reason it is important to discuss the various action levels in class. Hopefully, the children will realize that what they are planning to do is important, but only as part of a larger whole.

B. SUGGESTIONS FOR WORK.

1. a) Organise a discussion in class on the use of war toys. Some pupils are to defend the use of them, others are to argue against. Encourage other classes at your school to take up this discussion too.
   b) Interview adults about their opinion on war toys.
   The following key words might be useful when working with this topic : war as a means of entertainment — heroes, feeling of power, glorifying war, agressive attitudes, sex roles.

2. a) Inform others about the problems the class has been studying. Plan a special "topic" day or week and present an information programme. Invite other pupils, parents, people from the neighbourhood, local politicians, etc., to participate.
   b) Develop displays or wall sheets and place them in the school corridor, the local library, the community centre, etc.

*3. Write a story about what you think will be the development in field of the arms race and disarmament in the 25 years to come. Compare your stories in class and make a list of:
   a) THE POSITIVE THINGS (what you wish most of all will happen ;
   b) the negative things (what you fear most of all minght happen).
   Then discuss in class : what can we do to prevent the negative things from happening ? How can we work for the good things to happen ?

DAVID C. SMITH: CONFLICT STUDIES AND PEACE EDUCATION

Article from Prospects, Vol. IX, No. 2 (c) UNESCO 1979. Reproduced by permission of UNESCO.

Within the past five years there has been a remarkable growth of interest in conflict studies as a new and promising dimension of peace education. The interest appears to have stemmed from concerns about human conflict at several different levels of experience. First, violence within families—between husband and wife, between parents and children and between children themselves—has been considered to be so serious that it has been described by one author as 'an incurable epidemic'. Secondly, within nations there are frequent tensions between various subsets of the population that may sometimes seriously weaken national unity, and national economic development; for example, conflicts between regional groups, racial groups, employers and employees, occupational groups, political pressure groups and the like. Thirdly, at the international level, conflicts range from short-lived squabbles between neighbouring countries to long-standing cold wars all of which affect the well-being of the international community.

Are conflicts between individuals, groups and nations really on the increase, or is it that we simply perceive it to be that way? Some people have argued that conflicts have always been with us, that the amount of conflict has not appreciably increased, but rather the improvement in world-wide communications through the media and through the increase in international organization has created a heightened awareness of it. That may certainly be true in part, but there are other considerations that are cause for increasing anxiety about conflict in the modern world.

One is that mankind is experiencing an ever-increasing rate of technological and social change. Such changes appear to give rise to new and unexpected sources of conflict for which laws to protect individuals and groups, and institutionalized ways of resolving the conflicts have not been adequately developed. By contrast relatively stable societies do not normally experience the numerous conflicts associated with convulsive changes.

A second consideration is that because of the building of nuclear arsenals by the major powers, and the development of the means to deliver weapons at any point on the globe, mankind is faced with the possibility of extinction if an international conflict should break out and escalate beyond the control of those involved. What this means essentially is that failure to cope with international conflict has within it the inherent possibility of inflicting greater punishment upon the world than ever before. And for this reason, it is logical to

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to all three levels of conflict. The third phase would be the study of aggression as a response which would include the theories of aggression as well as the acts and results of aggression by individuals and the study of violent acts by groups and nations.

Whatever approach is used, the basic objectives enumerated earlier can be pursued. Fortunately there is an increasing array of accessible resources for the study of conflict. For example, the teacher can ask the students to draw upon personal experiences with family and friends that can be recorded in a private diary. Also, the immediate happenings in the classroom, in extra-curricular activities, and in the school generally may provide a ready source of latent or manifest conflict.

Resources of a secondary nature may also be readily available. Motion pictures and television programmes of a dramatic nature may be excellent media for the study of conflict. Similarly, newspapers containing reports on conflict situations, comics, cartoons, or columns on interpersonal or consumer problems provided ready material. Through reference to and analysis of any of the above sources, students can be introduced to the basic concepts in conflict studies, can acquire a variety of examples and models, and can learn the variety of methods of conflict management.

In many schools it is quite possible for resource persons in the community at large to share their rich experiences with the classes: counsellors, mediators, lawyers, policemen and judges are such examples. In addition, other teaching procedures such as role-playing, role-reversal, and simulation can help students to attain a better understanding of conflict and to practise acquiring the intellectual skills necessary for conflict management.

These same resources may be used to help students understand the values implicit in the alternative ways of handling a given conflict. Comparing the consequences for both parties, of any particular solution helps to clarify the value differences between the parties. Values in conflict resolution may also be studied at another quite different level by comparing ways in which conflicts are resolved in various cultures. Where such an exercise can be undertaken using simpler non-industrialized societies, differences in cultural values can be brought sharply into focus. Such treatment can help students to understand the relative nature of cultural values as well as the very real problems of resolving conflicts between societies having markedly different social and cultural values.

Conflict studies in perspective

This author's view is that conflict studies are only a small, contributory part of peace education and that peace education itself is only one factor, albeit a significant one, in the development of world peace.

At its heart, peace education may be conceived as an attempt to understand the reality of our world, a commitment to sharing the total resources of the globe and to developing a life of equality and justice for all. What this means is that our major problems—food supply, population, resource distribution, energy supplies, disarmament and the quality of the environment—must be studied and engaged at every possible level, personal, institutional, national and international. Conflict studies is no exception and may be a good example of the way in which a major problem can be studied at the different levels. At the same time, there must be a commitment to resolving conflicts in such a way that the cause of justice, liberty and peace is advanced.

There are both factors that impede the spread of conflict studies as a field within peace education, as well as factors which favour its development. Our knowledge of conflict and of conflict management is imperfect, but it is growing. Much research is needed to determine the actual effects of conflict studies on

non-verbal signalling systems. Conflict resolution occurs in one of three ways: through aggression, sharing (such as negotiation) or withdrawal. Where aggression is employed, strong forms of violence and abuse may not be resorted to if one of the adversaries withdraws, since withdrawal activity usually reduces the urge to attack on the part of the aggressor. In cases where both parties are aggressive the conflict can lead to mutual harm or destruction. By and large, however, mankind has developed the institutions and behaviours to resolve inter-personal and inter-group conflict in peaceful, non-aggressive ways except where rapid change gives rise to unanticipated types of conflict with which existing modes of behaviour may be unable to cope successfully.

Since communication through the complex signalling behaviour and feedback is essential for conflict resolution, a difficulty arises in modern international relations in those cases where there is no direct contact between the adversaries. When tensions escalate to the point of violence, a war conducted by remote control provides little opportunity for the human signalling system to be used. Further, where tension reaches the stage of war, the parties may have already decided to recall their ambassadors or to sever diplomatic relations completely. Unless a 'hot line' can be used in such circumstances, open violence may irreversibly develop.

Some assumptions about conflict studies

In considering how conflict studies can be planned and organized, it is helpful if we are clear about the assumptions upon which these studies may be based. Whether we are thinking about conflict between individuals, groups or nations, we shall asume that conflict is a phenomenon necessary to the growth and development of individuals and societies as a whole. Conflicts occur all the time and, inherent within them, are possibilities for stagnation or growth and change, depending upon how they are resolved. We need to develop healthy attitudes towards conflict as an aspect of the reality of the world we live in. What this means it that young people need to know that conflict is a more or less permanent aspect of their lives. They therefore need to know more about the origins of conflict, to be able to anticipate it and to be able to develop peaceful means of coping with it.

In considering conflicts that involve groups or nations, we will assume that there is a reciprocal relationship between the individual members or citizens and the representatives or leaders of the groups. When individual members have an informed awareness of conflict and its resolution, it is assumed that they can influence, or attempt to influence, the actions of their leaders in ways that are acceptable to the larger group. People who are skilled in clarifying national goals, able to analyse conflicts and to generate constructive solutions may help to establish nationally accepted norms of conflict-resolving behaviour as part of the cultural ethos. It is then logical that group and national leaders would respond to and reflect the norms of acceptable conflict-resolving behaviour. Inter-group and international conflicts are handled principally, though not exclusively, by national leaders, that is, by diplomats, ministers, premiers and presidents. When quiet bilateral or multilateral diplomacy prevails, there is less fear that a conflict can spread. Most conflicts are, in fact, handled through quiet diplomacy. However, when quiet diplomacy falters, leaders are sometimes tempted to enlist the support of their constituencies in an attempt to strengthen their negotiating position in the conflict. Through propaganda, they are each able to summon moral approval or to enlist concrete overt support through the mass media. What then happens, in effect, is that each side has escalated the conflict through a system of closed thinking: more parties and more people are involved. The only way in which such escalation can be pre-

vented is, on the one hand, a better educated and informed citizenry in matters of conflict and, on the other, through leaders committed to non-violent conflict resolution.

Educational objectives

In developing a programme of conflict studies, it is necessary to be as clear as possible about what objectives we are trying to attain. If we think initially about the content of what is to be learned, we can discern at least three kinds of knowledge. The first is to be able to understand some of the basic concepts underlying a study of conflict management. Such concepts as provocation, tension, communication, co-operation, trust, escalation, alliance, de-escalation, aggression, violence, negotiation, mediation, arbitration and the like would be included. Concepts such as these are the intellectual tools with which students can engage the study of conflict.

Another knowledge objective is to obtain a fund of conflict/co-operation situations and experiences upon which we can draw for the study of conflict. There is perhaps a tendency for people to repress and to forget unpleasant conflict experiences and a resulting predisposition to deal with conflict situations on an *ad-hoc* basis. However, being able to examine the kinds of conflict we have personally encountered or observed, or seen reported in the media, is a first step towards learning about the array of circumstances, the types of conflict, the range of solutions and the consequences of different types of action.

Once a fund of experiences has been built up, students can begin to learn a third type of knowledge: the processes by which conflicts develop and may be managed constructively. Through induction they may recognize that many conflicts exist only at the level of latent hostility, but that events may trigger feelings that raise the conflict to the manifest level. At this point, learning ways in which individuals can manage the conflict whether it is through bringing new information to bear upon the problem, persuading the adversary that a certain line of action is really in their mutual interest, or calling for a third party to assist with discussions can help to forestall its ever reaching a crisis point. If, however, a crisis is reached, knowledge of the ways of de-escalating conflicts to enable a return to normal relations is vital.

A second area of objectives is one that includes the intellectual skills that are needed to think clearly about conflict. These mental operations are the kinds of abilities that are brought into play when a person attempts to cope with actual conflict. They include first of all, the ability to recognize when conflict situations occur. Very often people are not concerned about a conflict until it reaches crisis proportions when positions have hardened and finding solutions becomes more difficult. Recognizing how to avoid being drawn into an irreversible situation can help to prevent escalation. Closely related to the ability to recognize conflict situations is the ability to articulate essentially what is at issue in a dispute. Frequently, the participants do not discern clearly what the crux of the issue is, particularly when the initial issue becomes overlaid by subsequent events which tend to cloud and complicate the basic issue. Participants in a dispute sometimes become so preoccupied with their own position that they fail to appreciate the position and the frame of reference of their adversary. Hence it is necessary to teach students that the participants in a dispute have different perceptions and perspectives of the conflict situation. Finally, the intellectual skills objectives include the ability to conceptualize a variety of solutions to the problem. Being able to generate alternative solutions is a skill crucial to finding productive ways of managing conflict.

A third area of objectives consists of those that lie in the affective domain, and of particular importance is the clarification of values relative

to conflict resolution. Implicit in every option considered in resolving a conflict is a value position, which becomes apparent when the consequences of implementing the option are studied. The nature of a conflict can, in this way, be seen as a values conflict in which one set of consequences is weighted against another. While a trade off, or choice of values must often be made, peace education requires that we develop a commitment to consider all of the possible value alternatives and particularly that we value those solutions that are alternatives to aggression and violence. Thus our knowledge of conflict as a process, our intellectual skills in applying that knowledge to real situations that confront us, and our commitment to values of equality and justice in making decisions about conflict are all essential objectives in conflict studies.

Content

How can conflict studies be made a part of the school curriculum? And of what essentially should it consist? The easiest, but not necessarily the most successful way, is to create one or more self-contained units which focuses on conflict as part of the social science curriculum. Such a unit may well draw upon the experiences students have in other disciplines but it can be organized to assume that the students can make and will continue to make, connections with their other studies.

The other basic way of bringing conflict studies into the curriculum is to review the various subject disciplines, or interdisciplinary studies, in the school and to ask where the resources, the conceptual ideas and methods basic to those areas may contribute effectively to an understanding of conflict. For example, the study of conflict in drama and literature, the occurrence of tensions and wars in history, competition and co-operation among animals in biology, the questions of choice in moral and religious instruction, and the study of judicial systems in law. The combined and cumulative effect of such an integrated approach could have a very powerful impact upon the students' understanding of conflict.

If we consider some of the possible structures for creating a sequence of studies in conflict, there are at least two that are popular in the current literature. One is to begin with interpersonal conflict—especially as it has been experienced by the individual learners—to proceed to a study of conflict between groups and then to extend these understandings to the more remote and complex types of conflict in international affairs. Such a scheme could be extended, if desired, in both directions to include intra-personal conflict (conflict within ourselves) and inter-galactic conflict. The first of these topics falls into the domain of psychology and the second is in the domain of science fiction. Such a scheme has been justified on the grounds that it begins with the known and familiar and proceeds to the unknown, yet it also moves from the relatively simple to complex types of conflict. Both of these justifications are based upon fundamental learning principles. Theoretically, students could begin the study of interpersonal conflict in the primary school eventually reaching a detailed study of international conflict at the senior levels of the secondary school, studying conflict in increasing levels of depth and sophistication.

Another type of structure that has been proposed is to organize the study of conflict around the different techniques of conflict resolution. By such a structure, one can begin with discussion as a technique (which includes collective bargaining, conciliation, diplomacy and negotiation) examining the kinds of give-and-take procedures in settling disputes at the interpersonal, inter-group and international levels. This phase could be followed by the study of withdrawal as a technique, where one participant gives in to a stronger, or more persuasive, adversary. Again, the technique can be applied

believe that we may be more sensitized to the occurrence of conflict and its possible consequences than our forebears. Hence, anxiety about conflict may not have arisen so much because of a perceived increase in its occurrence, but because of the shock effect upon people of new and unexpected conflicts in a time of rapid change and the very real appreciation of the possible disastrous effects of conflict should it occur on a world scale.

Studies of intra-family conflict as well as of conflicts at other levels tend to show that the habits and techniques that people use to handle it are passed on to the next generation. Where the techniques are skilful and creative peaceful ones, the transmission is to be encouraged, but where they involve abuse of and violence against others, particularly against those who are unable to defend themselves, clearly some break to discontinue the cycle is required. Those involved with the pursuit of conflict studies in schools are concerned essentially with the building of peacemaking skills in inter-personal and inter-group relations not only immediately to try to improve the quality of life at these levels now but also hopefully to form a viable basis for conflict management by individuals in the years ahead and ultimately to help the cause of peace at the international level.

The nature of conflict

To be able to develop a workable approach to conflict studies we must first be able to understand the root causes of conflict. When the causes at any level are analysed, they may be seen to fall into two distinct, but interrelated categories. Conflicts arise between individuals or between groups or between nations over the resources to meet the individual or collective basic physical needs of life—food, water, resources to provide clothing, shelter and energy, and space, including the ancillary resources needed to supply and deliver these materials. Conflicts also arise over the satisfaction of psychological needs—such needs as group membership, achievement, status, prestige and power. Desmond Morris, in his book *The Naked Ape*, summarizes these two classes of need as territoriality and social hierarchy respectively. They are, however, interrelated since the ownership of territory with its resources and technology may imply status and power (or lack of it) and, conversely, those groups in a position of prestige and power are often in a better position to acquire, or to negotiate from strength, resources from other territories.

When tensions arise between individuals over the satisfaction of basic needs certain physiological changes are triggered in the nervous system. Indeed, if the needs are not met, the very survival of the organism may be threatened. As tension increases, adrenalin is secreted into the circulatory system which produces a higher level of energy, a tensing of muscles, more rapid breathing and heartbeat and other physiological changes. These changes prepare us to fight, if necessary, for what we need. When adversaries are in a face-to-face situation, they are able to read the external manifestations of the changes in each other: verbal and non-verbal signals reveal the degree of tension, emotion and aggression.

The non-verbal behaviour in conflict includes facial expressions that convey aggression or fear—frowning, staring, pursing of the lips, puffing out the cheeks and blowing and the appropriate gestures and postures. Desmond Morris points out that there may also be extensive displacement activity during conflict, that is, activities that allow for the expenditure of pent-up energy but that are not apparently related to fearful or aggressive behaviour. In this category we can sometimes include smoking scratching, stroking the face, sipping at drinks or nibbling at food even if the person is not thirsty or hungry.

In a conflict situation, adversaries attempt to resolve the tension through the verbal and

human behaviour. Few teachers have encountered conflict as an academic field of study and hence they are often apprehensive, less sure of themselves, in dealing with it. As schools gain more experience with it, and are nourished by ongoing research, it will likely become a more viable and significant area of study. At present, however, conflict, as a continuing world problem, is examined neither as intensively nor as extensively at the school level as other major world problems, and it needs to be given higher priority in peace education programmes.

A second, more general difficulty is that nations are in different states of readiness to adopt and implement programmes of peace education. Mutual understanding, the mutual appreciation of cultural values, and reciprocal benefits from national conflict resolution imply that nations are equally prepared to pursue and equally committed to the goals of peace education. But clearly, nations are at different levels of development in programmes of peace education, a fact which certainly makes more difficult the realization of peace. The unevenness in development shows clearly the need for all to realize that the welfare of the whole world is dependent upon the welfare of the individual parts, and that the global community as a whole must be responsible for helping its individual members.

Gloomy as some of these considerations are, there is cause for some optimism for the spread of conflict studies. The very fact that total war can no longer be a real solution to the problem of global conflicts, forces nations to think about the alternative methods of conflict resolution. The reassessment of what constitutes realistic solutions to problems at the global level may have some benefits of transfer to the consideration of conflicts between smaller entities. Hence, it is not too far-fetched to believe that while peacemaking skills can be learned from the personal level and up, they may be substantially reinforced from the international level and down.

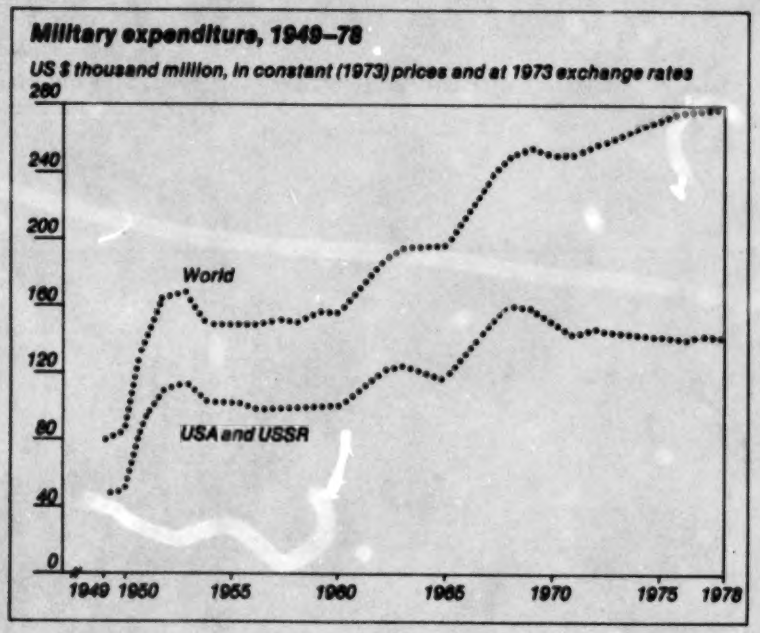
Another factor favouring the spread of conflict studies is the growth of communications over the globe. The multiplication of international organizations, the improved opportunities for travel, and the spread of other types of communications networks make possible the sharing of experience in conflict management and the more likely universal commitment to the goals of peace education. As communications improve, the unevenness in development and preparedness to adopt and implement programmes of peace education will tend to disappear.

Further encouragement for the growth of conflict studies and peace education can be found where programmes of education have clearly contributed to the peaceful development of relations between nations. Nowhere is there perhaps a better model in the contemporary world than in the role of education in helping to establish peaceful relations between the countries of Western Europe since 1945. The longitudinal study of changes in perceptions and goals within Western Europe could well serve as a model for comparative studies. However, ways need to be found of accelerating the process by which education can assist in the transformation of hostility into friendship and, especially, before, rather than after, the outbreak of violence.

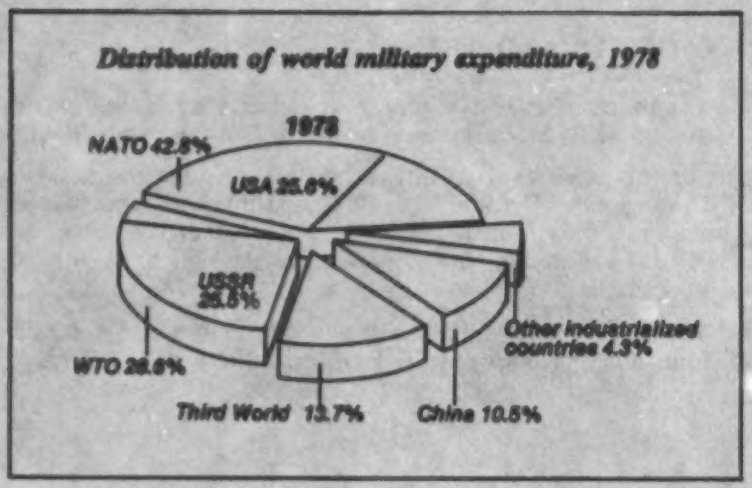
On balance, there seems to be good reason to believe that conflict studies within the larger endeavour of peace education holds the promise of enormous good, if it can be pursued with energy and imagination.

MILITARY EXPENDITURES AND ARMS

- World military expenditure in 1979 is running at about $ 400 thousand million per year (at current prices) — an almost fourfold increase during the 30 years since 1948.
- The gigantic costs of the arms race more than halfway through the Disarmament Decade and the Second UN Development Decade, are illustrated by the fact that every year military activities throughout the world absorb a volume of resources equivalent to about 2/3 of the aggregate Gross National Product (GNP) of those countries which together comprise the poorest half of the world's population.
- Since World War II the direct costs of the arms race are close to $ 6,600,000 million (in 1979 prices) — about as much as the aggregate GNP of the entire world in 1975.



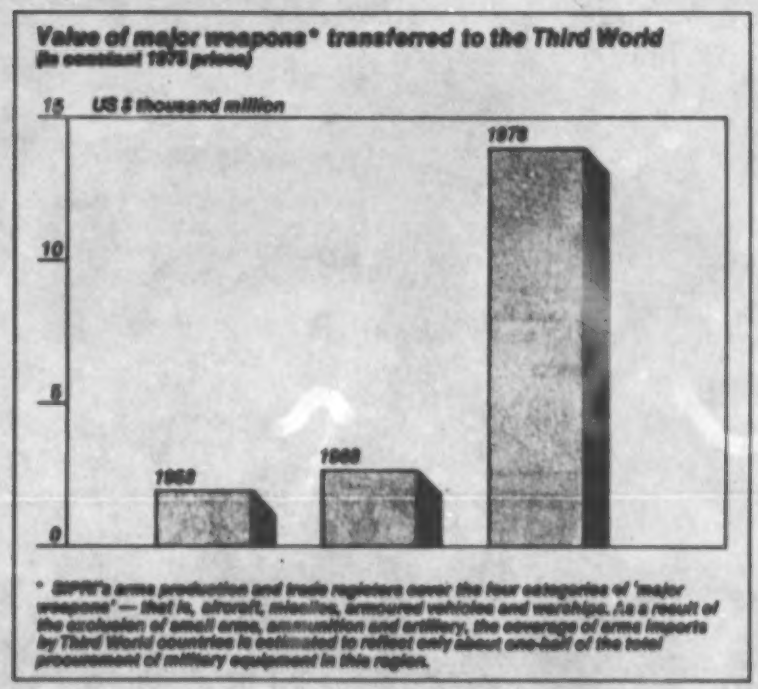
- Conventional armaments account for 80% of global military outlays.
- In 2 days the world spends on arms the equivalent of 1 year's budget for the United Nations and its specialized agencies.
- A year's expenditures on international peacekeeping by the UN are equal to 3 hours of the world's expenditures on national military forces.
- The megatonnage of the world's nuclear arsenal (50,000 million tons TNT equivalent) which is still increasing, is now several million times the explosive force of the bomb that destroyed Hiroshima in 1945.
- At present levels of military spending (1977), the average person can expect over his lifetime to give up 3 to 4 years' income to the arms race.
- Annual procurement budget for the world's military weapons: about $ 80,000 million = twice the size of the combined budgets for education and health in all developing countries.
- In the last 10 years, the 4 major supplying countries have helped to double the inventory of modern weapons in the developing world. The qualitative improvement that these weapons represent ensures a new order of lethality and destruction in future local conflicts.



Source (both tables): Armaments or Disarmaments? The crucial choice, SIPRI Brochure 1979.

ARMS TRANSFERS

- Particularly in recent years, arms transfers have been a very visible part of the arms race. Nevertheless, they account for only 3% to 4% of the world military expenditures, or between 10% and 15% of the military equipment produced throughout the world.
- In the years 1967-77 the value of major weapons transferred to other countries increased by over 300%.
- The Third World today accounts for 70% of the global arms trade. Most significant recipient regions are: Middle East 47%, Far East 17%, Sub-Saharan Africa 12%.
- Total value of international arms trade is estimated at $ 20,000 million per year at current prices (1979).
- The 7 largest arms-supplier countries in 1978: USA (47%), USSR (27%), France (11%), Italy (4%), UK (4%), Fed. Rep. of Germany (2%) and China (1%).



* SIPRI's arms production and trade registers cover the four categories of 'major weapons' — that is, aircraft, missiles, armoured vehicles and warships. As a result of the exclusion of small arms, ammunition and artillery, the coverage of arms imports by Third World countries is estimated to reflect only about one-half of the total procurement of military equipment in this region.

Source: Armaments or Disarmaments? The crucial choice, SIPRI Brochure 1979.

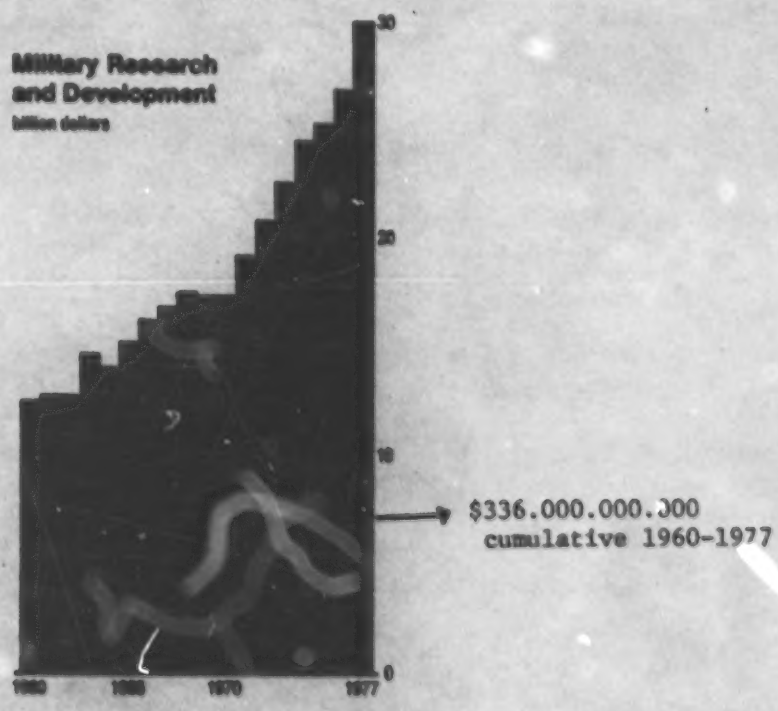
- Between 1961 and 1975 the arms imports of developing countries more than tripled. During these years, the rise in official development assistance was 65%, all in constant prices.
- About 1/3 of the total value of transfers of military goods and services is traded among industrialized countries, another 1/3 is made up of exports to oil-exporting developing countries, and the remaining 1/3 goes to all other developing countries together.

RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT, LABOUR FORCE

- It is in the field of scientific and technological capability that the diversion of resources to military ends is most massive.
- World's military research and development: $ 25,000 million per year for military purposes, is six times as large as public budget for energy research.
- Military and space research together get more public research and development funds than all social needs combined.
- Military research occupies half a million scientists and engineers throughout the world — at present some 25% of the world's scientific manpower is engaged in military-related pursuits. In the past the fraction has been even higher.
- World's military personnel:

Regular forces	24 million
Paramilitary (including people's militia)	22 million
Reservists	24 million
Civilians in military-related jobs	25-30 million

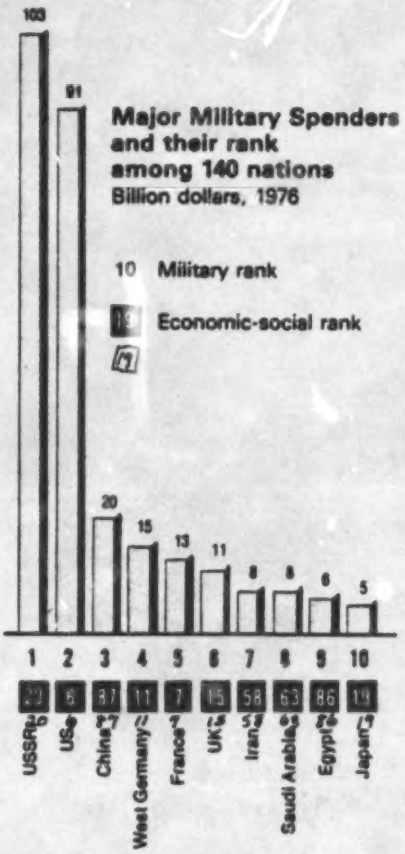
- Active military and civilian personnel equal the combined population of France and Belgium.
- The US Government estimates that $ 1,000 million of military expenditure creates 76,000 military jobs. The same amount spent for civilian programmes of the Federal Government would create more than 100,000 jobs. If $ 1,000 million were released for private consumption through tax cuts, about 112,000 new jobs could be created.
- In other words, a reduction of 10% in the military budget accompanied by a corresponding reduction of taxes, could give jobs to 300,000 unemployed.



Source: World Military and Social Expenditures, 1978.

DISARMAMENT AND DEVELOPMENT

- The military expenditures of the industrial countries are more than 20 times greater than the funds they devote to official assistance to developing countries.
- The world's military budget equals the annual income of 1,800 million people in the 36 poorest nations.
- It is estimated that the number of military personnel in the world — to which millions of civilians in paramilitary jobs should be added — is today twice the number of teachers, doctors and nurses.
- For the world as a whole, public expenditures for the education of 1,300 million children of school age are 7% less than world military expenditures.
- For each school-age child they average $ 260 a year — as compared with military expenditures averaging $ 16,000 for each soldier.



Source: World Military and Social Expenditures, 1979.

- The gap between education and military spending is actually widest in the poorer countries, where unmet needs in terms of basic literacy, textbooks, teachers, and teaching facilities are enormous. In the world as a whole there are almost as many soldiers as there are teachers.
- The developing nations import arms at a rate of more than $ 6,000 million a year.
- The cost of one US Trident submarine equals the cost of a year's schooling for 16 million children in developing countries.
- The cost of one tank, US $ 500,000, could provide equipment for 520 classrooms with 30 pupils per primary school class.

- The UN emphasizes the relationship between disarmament and development since funds, manpower, intellect and other resources now absorbed by the military sector could be set free to

UNITED NATIONS AND DISARMAMENT

- The UN is the coordinator of international action for disarmament, a field of particular interest to non-governmental organizations (NGOs). The General Assembly annually receives reports on disarmament efforts made all over the world.

- The goal of "general and complete disarmament under effective international control" has been the ultimate aim of the UN's disarmament efforts since 1959. In the 20 years since that goal was proclaimed, many countries have offered detailed proposals for reductions of armaments in stages, with variations as to which types of arms or forces would be reduced first, numerical limits to be set, timetables and methods of control.

- Today general and complete disarmament is no longer regarded as an objective to be achieved through a single treaty embodying timetables for all measures of nuclear and conventional disarmament. It is seen as a goal to work towards in the expectation that each specific agreement will lead to another — increasing mutual confidence at each stage and thus adding to the chances of success in the next phase.

- In 1978 the General Assembly held a Special Session on Disarmament in which all nuclear powers and almost all other states took part, for the first time. Also for the first time, NGOs and research institutes could through their representatives address the General Assembly.

- An important achievment of the special session was its agreement on ways to give new impetus to negotiations and deliberations on disarmament. Adequate results had not been produced with the previous machinery, the Assembly said. There was an urgent need to revitalize the disarmament machinery. The special session thus endorsed arrangements for a Committee on Disarmament (CD) to meet the need for "a single multilateral disarmament negotiating forum of limited size". It also established a Disarmament Commission composed of all United Nations Members, to discuss disarmament matters and make recommendations.

- At the following regular General Assembly over 40 resolutions on disarmament were adopted. An important decision was to convene a second Special Session in 1982.

- After more than 30 years' work for disarmament, within and outside the UN, only one agreement on disarmament has been achieved (The Biological Weapons Convention, 1972) — all other treaties concern arms control. Negotiations on disarmament and arms control require patience, tenacity and promotion of public interest in the issues.

- Although progress has been slow, a few real gains have been achieved. Among the most significant are:

- 1961: *The Antartic Treaty* declares Antarctica to be used exclusively for peaceful purposes.

- 1963: *The Partial Test Ban Treaty* bans nuclear weapon tests in the atmosphere, in outer space and under water.

- 1967: *The Outer Space Treaty* prohibits placing of nuclear or other weapons of mass destruction in orbit around the Earth.

- 1970: *The Non-Proliferation Treaty* prohibits transfer of nuclear weapons by nuclear states and their acquisition by non-nuclear weapon states.

- 1972: *The Sea-Bed Treaty* prohibits emplacement of nuclear weapons on the sea-bed beyond a 12-mile zone.

- 1972: *The SALT ABM Treaty* (SALT I) imposes limitations on a specific type of US and USSR anti-ballistic missile defenses.

- 1979: *The SALT II Treaty* freezes the aggregate number of US and USSR ballistic missile launchers, at a level higher than now.

Sources, fact sheets 1—5:

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Development and Cooperation, DSE, no. 2, 1979
"Basic Needs". ILO wall-chart
International Federation of Chemical, Energy and General Workers' Unions report to the UN Centre for Disarmament, New York, March 1979.

The fact sheets are prepared by Gunilla Possenius.

INFORMATION MATERIALS AND DOCUMENTS ON DISARMAMENT

The United Nations and various specialized agencies have issued a number of publications and other information materials concerning disarmament. Following is a list of some of the materials available.

Books:

- The United Nations and Disarmament 1945-1970 Sales No. 70.IX.1 (515 pages, clothbound) Also exists in A, C, F, R, S*
- The United Nations and Disarmament 1970-1975 Sales No. E.76.IX.1 (267 pages, clothbound) A, C, F, R, S
- The United Nations Disarmament Yearbook - Vol. I: 1976 Sales No. E.77.IX.2 (310 pages, clothbound) A, C, F, R, S
- The United Nations Disarmament Yearbook - Vol. II: 1977 Sales No. E.78.IX.4 (365 pages, clothbound) A, C, F, R, S
- Status of Multilateral Arms Regulation and Disarmament Agreements Special Supplement to the United Nations Disarmament Yearbook - Vol. II: 1977 (Sales No. E.78.IX.2) (144 pages, paperbound). (Contains texts of agreements and lists of States Parties. Other five language versions will be available in the near future.)
- Basic Problems of Disarmament (Contains the 1970 Report on Economic and Social Consequences of Disarmament and the first two reports listed below.) Sales Nos. E.70.I.16, E.70.I.17 (265 pages, paperbound) F, S

Reports:

- Effects of the Possible Use of Nuclear Weapons and the Security and Economic Implications for States of the Acquisition and Further Development of These Weapons: Report of the Secretary-General transmitting the study of his consultative group (A/6858) Sales No. E.68.IX.1 (76 pages, paperbound) F, S
- Chemical and Bacteriological (Biological) Weapons and the Effects of their Possible Use: Report of the Secretary-General (A/7575/Rev.1) (S/9292/Rev.1) Sales No. E.69.I.24 (100 pages, paperbound) F, R, S
- Disarmament and Development: Report of the Group of Experts on the Economic and Social Consequences of Disarmament 1972 (ST/ECA/174) Sales No. E.73.IX.1 (37 pages, paperback) F, S

* A: Arabic, C: Chinese, F: French, R: Russian, S: Spanish.

- Napalm and Other Incendiary Weapons and all Aspects of their Possible Use: Report of the Secretary-General 1972 (A/8803/Rev. 1) Sales No. E.73.I.3 (63 pages, paperbound) F, S

- Comprehensive Study of the Question of Nuclear-Weapon-Free Zones in All its Aspects - Special Report of the Conference of the Committee on Disarmament 1976 (A/10027/Add.1) Sales No. E.76.I.7 (98 pages, paperbound) F, S

- Reduction of Military Budgets-Measurements and International Reporting of Military Expenditures: Report Prepared by the Group of Experts on the Reduction of Military Budgets - Report of the Secretary-General 1977 (A/31/222/Rev. 1) Sales No. E.77.I.6 (60 pages paperbound) F, S

- Economic and Social Consequences of the Arms Race and Military Expenditures - Updated Report of the Secretary-General 1978 (A/32/88/Rev.1) Sales No. E.78.IX.1 (90 pages, paperbound) F, R, S

- Final Document of Assembly Session on Disarmament: 1978 (pamphlet) (OPI/618) F, S

Other Publications:

- Disarmament - A periodic review by the United Nations - Vol. I: 1978 Sales No. E.79.IX.1 (74 pages, paperbound) A, C, F, R, S

- Disarmament - A periodic review by the United Nations - Vol. II: 1978 Sales No. E.78.IX.5 (106 pages, paperbound) A, C, F, R, S

- Disarmament - A periodic review by the United Nations - Vol. III: 1979 Sales No. E.78.IX.3 (77 pages, paperbound) A, C, F, R, S

- Economic and Social Consequences of the Arms Race and of Military Expenditures - Questions and Answers: 1977 (Pamphlet) (OPI/594) F, S

- United Nations General Assembly: A Guide to the Final Document of the Special Session on Disarmament: 1978 (Pamphlet) (OPI/619) F, S

- The Fires of War: Napalm and Other Incendiary Weapons: 1973 (Pamphlet) (OPI/488) F, S

- The Dangers of Chemical and Bacteriological (Biological) Weapons, 1969 (Pamphlet) (OPI/373) F

- The Arms Race and Development, 1978 (Pamphlet) (CESI.E57) F, S

- Disarmament: The Need for Intensified Efforts — Background Papers: 1977 (Pamphlet) (OPI/584) F, S

- Nuclear-Weapon-Free Zones: 1977 (OPI/585) (27 pages, paperbound) F, S

- The United Nations and Outer Space: 1977 (OPI/583) (41 pages, paperbound) F, S

- Conference of Non-Nuclear Weapon States... A search for greater security and access to nuclear power for development: 1968 (Pamphlet) (OPI/340) F

- Disarmament : Progress towards peace, 1974 (OPI/500), sales N°. E.74.I.23 (47 pages, paperbound) F, S

- Sea-Bed - A Frontier of Disarmament, 1972 (Pamphlet), sales No. E.72.I.10.
- Offprint of Monthly Bibliography (Part II) : Selected articles for disarmament, peace and security (available from the Centre for Disarmament, Geneva Unit Research and Reference Collection). F.
- Disarmament Fact Sheets : Brief reports on disarmament problems and related United Nations recommendations and negotiations, prepared by the Centre for Disarmament in co-operation with the Department of Public Information. F, R, S. (Some of the publications listed above also have been issued in other languages.)
- *IAEA* (International Atomic Energy Agency). A Short History of Non-Proliferation, 1976 (50 pages, paperbound). F, R, S.
- *UNESCO* (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization). The UNESCO Courier- A Window Open on the World: The Arms Race, April 1979 (available in six official languages plus 14 other language versions).

Disarmament posters :

- United Nations Centre for Disarmament Poster : "Mankind Must Choose: Halt the Arms Race or Face Annihilation - United Nations Disarmament Week - 24-30 October 1979". Available in English, French, Spanish, Chinese, Russian, and without text.
- UNICEF is offering a special disarmament poster, designed and donated as a contribution to the International Year of the Child by the famous Swiss artist Hans Erni. It is available from national committees for UNICEF or from the UNICEF Office for Europe, at approx. $1.00 or equivalent, in English, French, German, and without text.

U.N. films :

- "Nuclear Countdown": 28 minutes, in colour. The nuclear arms race, with its inherent threat of ultimate disaster, is the greatest peril the world faces today. The film traces the history and current status of the nuclear arms race, documents continuing international efforts at control, and explains the dangers of both vertical and horizontal proliferation. F, S.
- "Booom" » : 11 minute animated cartoon film which won first prize in the short-subject category at the 1979 Cannes Film Festival.

These materials are listed in Disarmament Fact Sheet No. 10 (prepared by the Centre for Disarmament in cooparetion with the Information Service), and are available from the Centre for Disarmament.

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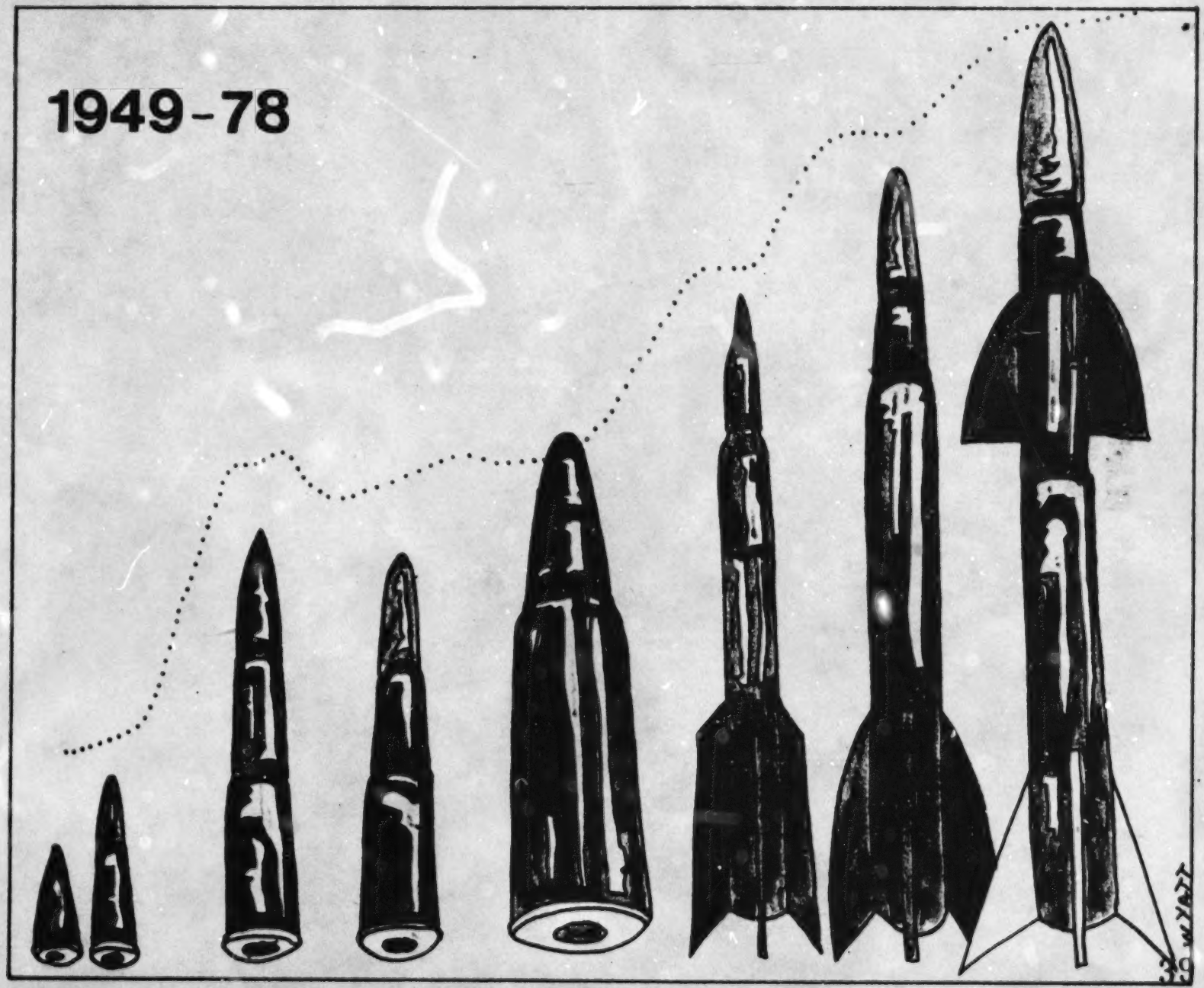

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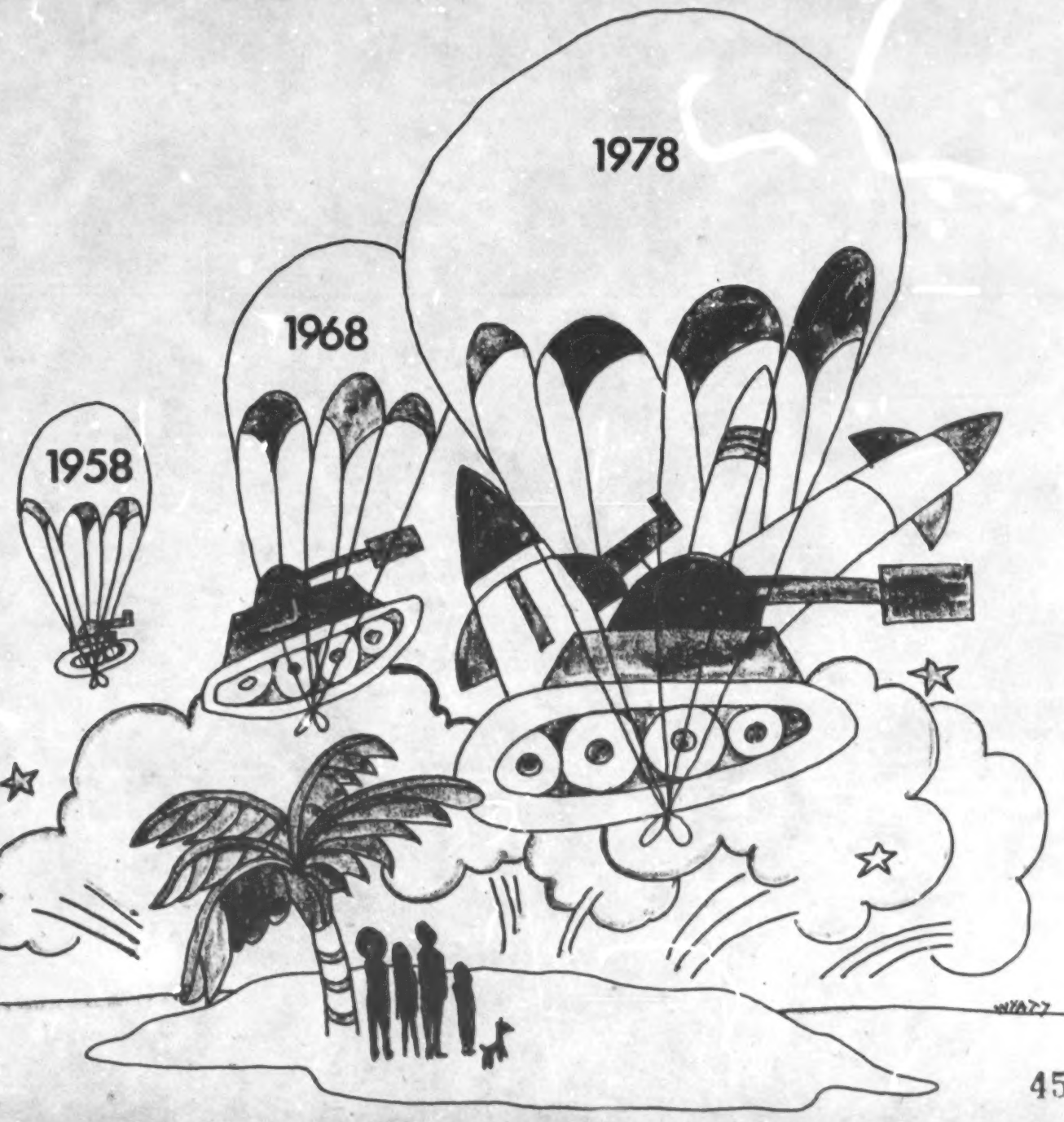
1978
1968
1958

1
MX
= 50,000,000
1
= 520
1
= 40,000